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ABSTRACT

The development of biliteracy programs designed for adults involves a broad range of sociolinguistic questions that can be approached from a language planning perspective. As a problem-solving activity, language planning is the realization of language policy that a government adopts in respect to such issues as language diversity, minority language treatment, language standardization, or the national language question. Language planning stresses the social nature of language, its functions in society, and the attitudes or group needs with respect to the different languages or speech varieties. From this perspective, the development of biliteracy programs can follow a series of stages and activities initially conceived for use by developing countries. These include: (1) fact finding about sociolinguistic concerns; (2) identification of literacy goals, including the role of native language literacy skills in relation to the second language, specification of literacy skills in terms of both individual and societal needs, and proposal of strategies for reaching the various goals; (3) preparation of materials and curriculum; (4) implementation and information dissemination; and (5) evaluation. A 70-item bibliography is included. (MSE) (Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Literacy Education)

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SOCIOLINGUISTIC CONSIDERATIONS IN LITERACY PLANNING

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INTRODUCTION

Literacy planning from a sociolinguistic perspective offers the possibility for considering a number of issues related to language diversity, patterns of language use in society, attitudes about the first and second languages, and the functional distribution of different text types in specific social domains. Reading and writing events across languages can involve a broad range of cognitive and linguistic skills. Learner differences can influence the acquisition of literacy skills as well as the local social context and national language policies.

The planning language situation of the United States can be characterized in terms of both linguistic and cultural diversity. The development of biliteracy skills among adults appears to be a complex phenomenon. The various steps used in language planning efforts may prove to be essential in solving biliteracy problems which are social, political, and psychological in nature. Efforts in planning biliteracy programs for adults might benefit by considering the sociopolitical and linguistic circumstances which can influence in different ways the literacy prospects for the various ethnolinguistc groups. Finally, the literacy learners themselves can offer valuable insights about their literacy goals, their strategies for literacy acquisition, and the roles that biliteracy plays in their daily lives.

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LANGUAGE VARIETIES

The language situation of the United States is one of great diversity, encompassing a

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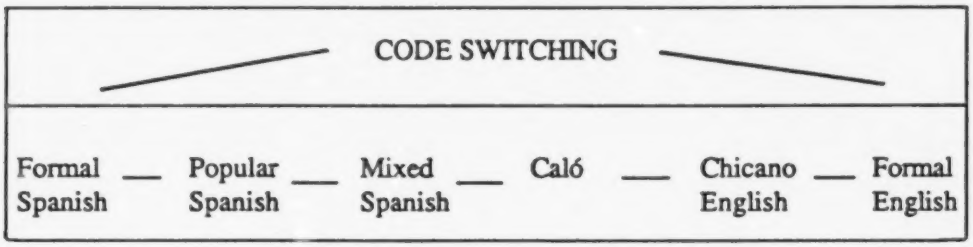
number of ethnolinguistic communities some of which involve indigenous languages (e.g., Navajo, Hopi, Cherokee, Mohawk), colonial languages (e.g., Spanish, French, German), and immigrant languages (e.g., Chinese, Italian, Greek, Japanese, Russian, Tagalog, Urdu). All of these language are in contact with different varieties of American English (Conklin and Lourie, 1983; Mckay and Wong, 1988). English includes a number of regional varieties (e.g. Southern English, New England, "Bostonian" English, California English) as well as social dialects (e.g., middle class English from Houston; blue collar English from Detroit; Black English from Atlanta, New York city speakers from Jewish backgrounds). Languages like Spanish, French, German, and Chinese, to name a few, also reflect variation in terms of geography/region as well as social factors.

In the case of Spanish, one can identify at least four major varieties. These include Mexican Spanish, particularly in the Southwest and large urban centers of the Midwest (Detroit, Cleveland, and Chicago); Puerto Rican Spanish, principally in the eastern states (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut); Cuban Spanish, in Miami, Boston, and New Orleans (Cárdenas, 1970). Peninsular Spanish can be heard in Newark, New Jersey among persons from the Galicia region, and *is isleño*, a dialect from the Canary Islands, still survives in Bayou Lafourche, Louisiana (Craddock, 1981). Within the Southwest, four dialectal zones with some degree of overlapping are noticeable:, (1) Texas Spanish, with considerable influence due to Mexican migration; (2) New Mexican and Southern Coloradan Spanish, which includes a number of archaisms due to its relative isolation until recently; (3) Arizonan Spanish, with a number of linguistic features in common with New Mexican Spanish but with a significant influence of northern Mexican Spanish due to its proximity to Sonora, and (4) Californian Spanish, an extension of Arizonan Spanish greatly influenced by borrowing from English (Cárdenas, 1970).

The Spanish spoken in the Southwest has more recently been described in terms of an English-Spanish continuum ranging from Standard (formal) Mexican Spanish to Standard (formal English with several dialects or speech styles blending into each other between the two standard varieties (Elías-Olivares and Valdés, 1982:155-156). The continuum is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

Language Varieties Among Hispanics in the Southwest



Source: Lucía Elías- Olivares and Guadalupe Valdés, 1982, p.155.

Differences among the varieties can be established on the basis of linguistic criteria. Popular Spanish for example, contains a number of nonstandard features with respect to vowel and consonant changes, verb tenses and conjugations, and gender/number agreement rules. Mixed Spanish and Caló (Pachuco) contain elements of both English and Spanish while maintaining basic Spanish word order and pronunciation of English (*londri* for "laundry," *escrín* for "screen," and *esquiplar* for "skip"). Mixed Spanish can serve for informal speaking

and sometimes is used by children who have not been exposed to either English or Spanish as a separate code. Code switching involves the alternating use of the two languages at the word, phrase, clause, or sentence level. For example, while speaking Spanish, a speaker may say:

1. No voy a ir al gym.

   (I'm not going to the gym.)

2. Estoy muy cansado, so I'm going to bed.

   (I,m very tired, so I,m going to bed.)

In the case of code switching at the word level (1) and code switching at the clause level (2), both English pronunciation and word form are maintained with no attempt to "adapt" to Spanish, as in the case of Mixed Spanish or Caló, a colloquial variety containing jargon as spoken by some delinquents, slang expressions, and gypsy argot.

Sánchez (1983) argues that there are basically two principal varieties of Spanish in the Southwest. One is the standard and the other the popular, which can be further subdivided into urban and rural codes in many cases. Within each subcode there are special varieties such as Caló, which is an urban subcode. Differences among the three major varieties occur primarily at the morphosyntactic level (the formation of word within sentence construction), although variation can exist at the level of words in the case of archaic terms, English loanwords, or rural vocabulary.

More than at the code level, speakers often shift speaking styles (formal, informal, and intimate) to "accommodate" a change in topic (food, family, religion, sports), addressee (relative, stranger, friend), context (home, church, work, street), and language function (apology, reprimand, suggestion, advice).

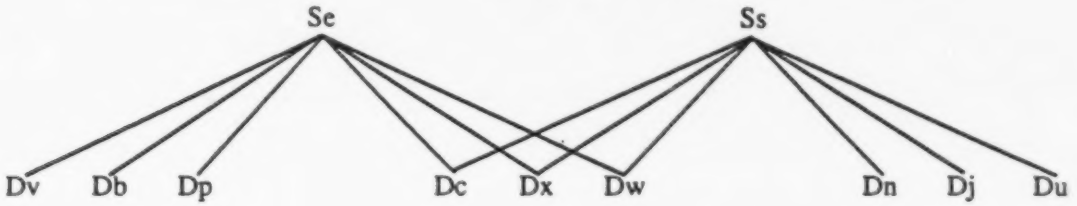
The language situation among Puerto Ricáns living in the New York City areas has been described in terms of a polyglossic model for English, code switching, and Spanish.

The model illustrates the verbal repertoire of many speakers with respect to the range of language varieties. Pedrafa, Attinasi, and Hoffman (1980) hypothesize that the written standard forms of English and Spanish (Se, Ss) and the corresponding formal spoken dialects (with regional variation) are in a dynamic relation with several spoken vernaculars. Speakers have varying access to the spoken varieties and written styles: (Dv) represents New York or other local vernaculars; (Db) is the speech of American Blacks; (Dp) the speech of Puerto Ricans raised speaking English; (Dc, x, w) are varieties of code-switching; (Dn) is the Spanish of New York City; (Dj) is a more rural style of Puerto Rican speech, (Du) represents urban Puerto Rican Spanish. None of these varieties are simple, and their characteristics are not equally established. The overall import remains, nonetheless, that with access to mass media, both written and electronic, the verbal repertoire of many speakers may be modeled as sustaining several influences different in content and kind.

Even if there is a way to salvage the diglossic analysis of bilingualism, it will have to take into consideration (1) the role of literacy, (2) the various Latin American standards of Spanish spoken by educated persons of the various Hispanophone regions and nations, and (3) the dynamic processes of interaction between the various levels (H and L, or S and D) and, in bilingual context, between the two codes. the typology suggests the nature of the complex sociolinguistic situation that occurs in contemporary Spanish-English bilingualism in New York, the U.S., and more generally, in much of the Americas today, under conditions of advanced international exchange, and media and print literacy.

The particular variety of language used in a specific cultural setting may be influenced by a number of factors or a combination of variables associated with the participants, the situation itself, the topic, and the purpose of the interaction. Grosjean (1982) summarizes some of the salient factors which have been noted to influence language choice in bilingual communities as can be seen in Table 1.

Figure 2 : A POLYGLOSSIC MODEL FOR ENGLISH CODE SWITCHING AND SPANISH IN EL BARRIO
(after Wexler 1971)



Se	= Varieties of English
Ss	= Varieties of Spanish
Dv	= New York local English Vernacular
Db	= Black English Speech
Dp	= Puerto Rican English
Dc, Dx, Dw	= Varieties involving different types/levels of code switching in English and Spanish
Dn	= New York city Spanish
Dj	= Rural variety of Puerto Rican Spanish
Du	= Urban variety of Puerto Rican Spanish

Table 1. Factors Influencing Language Choice

Participants	Situation
Language proficiency	Location/Setting
Language preference	Presence of monolinguals
Socioeconomic status	Degree of formality
Age	Degree of intimacy
Sex	Topic
Occupation	Type of vocabulary
Education	Function of interaction
Ethnic background	To raise status
History of Speakers' linguistic--interaction	To create social distance
Kinship relation	To exclude someone
Intimacy	To request or command
Power relation	
Attitude toward languages	
Outside pressure	

Source: Grosjean, 1982, p.136.

LANGUAGE USE PATTERNS

The relative use of Spanish with respect to English has been examined in relation to sociolinguistic domains, broad institutional and functional categories that are congruent combinations of a particular speaker, topic, and place, each of which requires of specific language use pattern (e.g., Spanish for "home"; English for "work"; both language in the "neighborhood"). Sanchez (1983) notes that the formal/informal distinction may be helpful in describing the uses of English and Spanish. English tend to be used in the "formal" societal domains such as work, government, and media, while Spanish will be utilized in the "informal" contexts of home, neighborhood, and recreation. At the same time, there will be differences due to social class and generation in the United States. The following chart illustrates the dynamics of language choice among Hispanics in the Southwest.

Table 2. Language Use among Hispanics in the Southwest

	Middle Class			Working Class					
				Rural			Urban		
Nativity Generation	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Domains									
Home	S	B	E	S	B	B	S	B	E
Neighborhood	E	E	E	S	B	B	B	B	B
Recreation	B	E	E	B	B	B	B	B	E
Work	E	E	E	B	B	B	B	E	E
Media	B	E	E	B	B	B	B	B	E
Government	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E

All first generation speakers use Spanish in the home domains regardless of class and location. The middle class shifts to English entirely by the third generation, while the working class employs both language in at least the neighborhood domain among urban groups and other areas like home, recreations, work, and media among Hispanics living in rural areas.

At the level of home, Zentella (1988) characterizes Puerto Rican homes in relation to four distinct communication patterns:

I. The parents/caretakers speak only Spanish to each other and to the children,; the children respond to their parents in Spanish but they speak Spanish and English to each other. (This accounted for 26 percent of the 19 families in the study.)

II. The parents/caretakers speak Spanish to each other and to the children, but one of them sometimes speaks English as a second language to them. The children respond in both languages, preferring Spanish for the adults and English for their siblings (47 percent of the families studied).

III. The parents usually speak English to each other and to the children; one parent speaks some Spanish to them. The children understand Spanish but respond in English and speak it to each other (16 percent of the families studied).

IV. The parents code-switch frequently among themselves and to their infants, who are just learning to speak (11 percent of the families studied).

These patterns were observed over a period of time using an ethnographic research approach. According to Zentella, in the majority of families' in patterns I and II, Spanish is used among the parents and at least one caretaker uses Spanish while speaking to the children. These parents in these two groups have emigrated to the United States usually after having spent their adolescent years on the island. Children from these family tend to be more fluent bilinguals, often demonstrating a greater competence in English than in Spanish. Parents in pattern III include those born and raised in New York city or who left Puerto Rico before late adolescence or who married a monolingual English speaker, such as the mother who in turn, would speak mainly English to the children. Young couples born or raised in the city will frequently code switch between English and Spanish with each other, and the children from these home will have some limited knowledge of Spanish, at least in the area of vocabulary.

Ramírez (1990) documents the relative use of Spanish and English among Hispanic adolescents (N =549, 250 males and 299 females) in ten urban centers involving Mexican Americans (216=39.3%), Puerto Ricans (119=21.7%), Cuban (51=9.3%) and other ethnic background. The results presented in Figures 3 and 4 differentiates the uses of English and Spanish with respect to generation and domain. Spanish is used primarily when speaking to grandparents, "mostly" Spanish when talking with parents, and "both languages" or "mostly English" when interacting with siblings. Usage patterns according to domains indicate that the church context is the only other area outside the home where Spanish plays a major role among these adolescents. There are also importance difference due to location which can be attributed to characteristics of the sample (e.g., place of birth, home language environment, proficiency in Spanish).

STYLES AND REGISTERS

In addition to language variation that is reflected by regional dialects and social dialects, speakers adopt different styles of speaking depending on the circumstances. Formal situations like lectures, newscasts, and public announcements call for careful speech, often prepared scripts which are read and sound like written discourse. Informal situations like casual conversations among friends involve unplanned speech that evolves through the course of the interaction. Some conversation involve the use of intimate language such as the talk between husband and wife or parents and children. Strevens (1964) provides an amusing illustration of five "styles" of speaking in British English:

Frozen: Visitors should make their way at once to the upper floor by way of the staircase.

Formal: Visitors should go up the stairs at once.

Consultative: Would you mind going upstairs right away, please?

Casual: Time you all went upstairs now.

Intimate: Up you go chaps!

Figure 3

Use of Spanish and English to communicate with different family members in ten localities

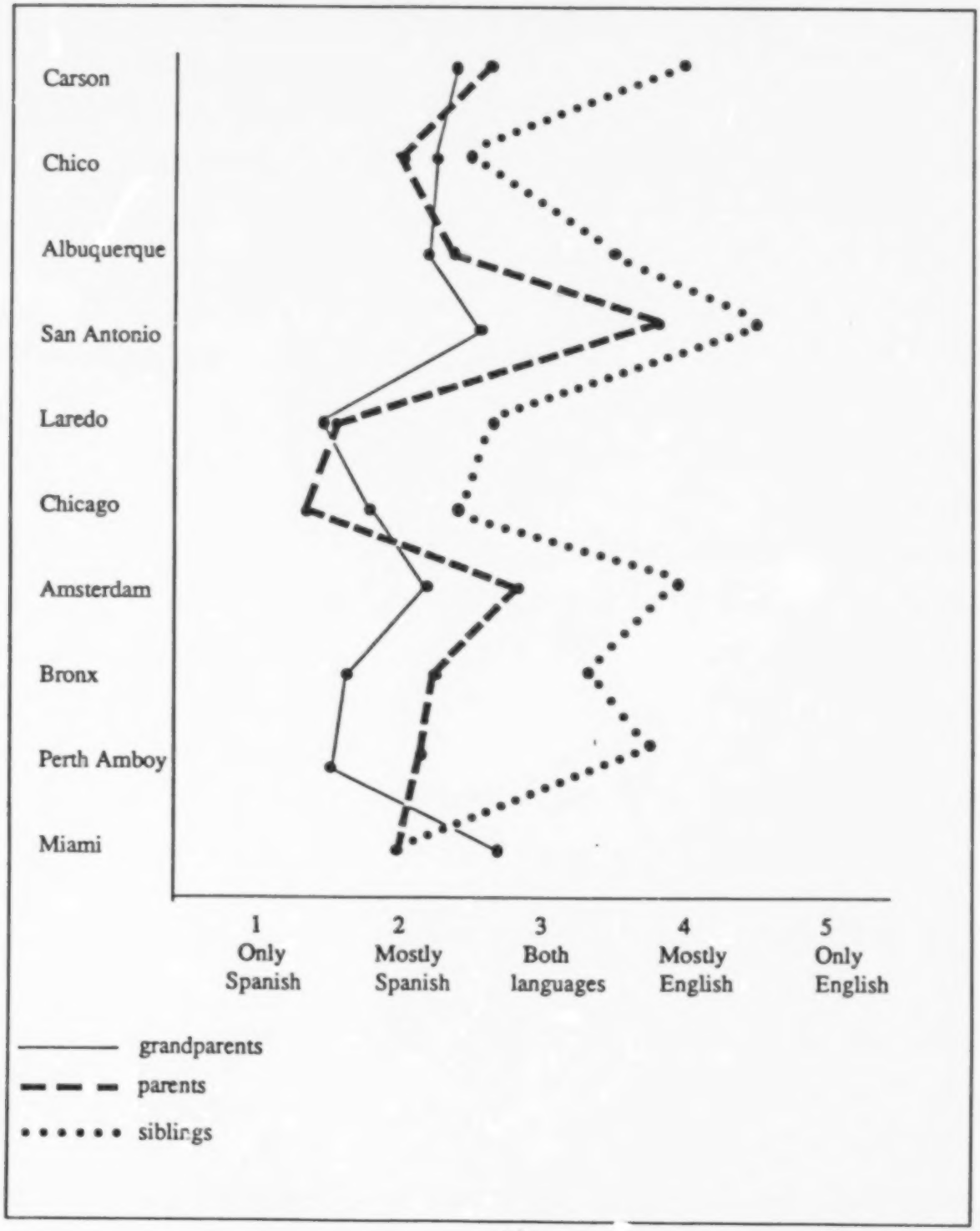
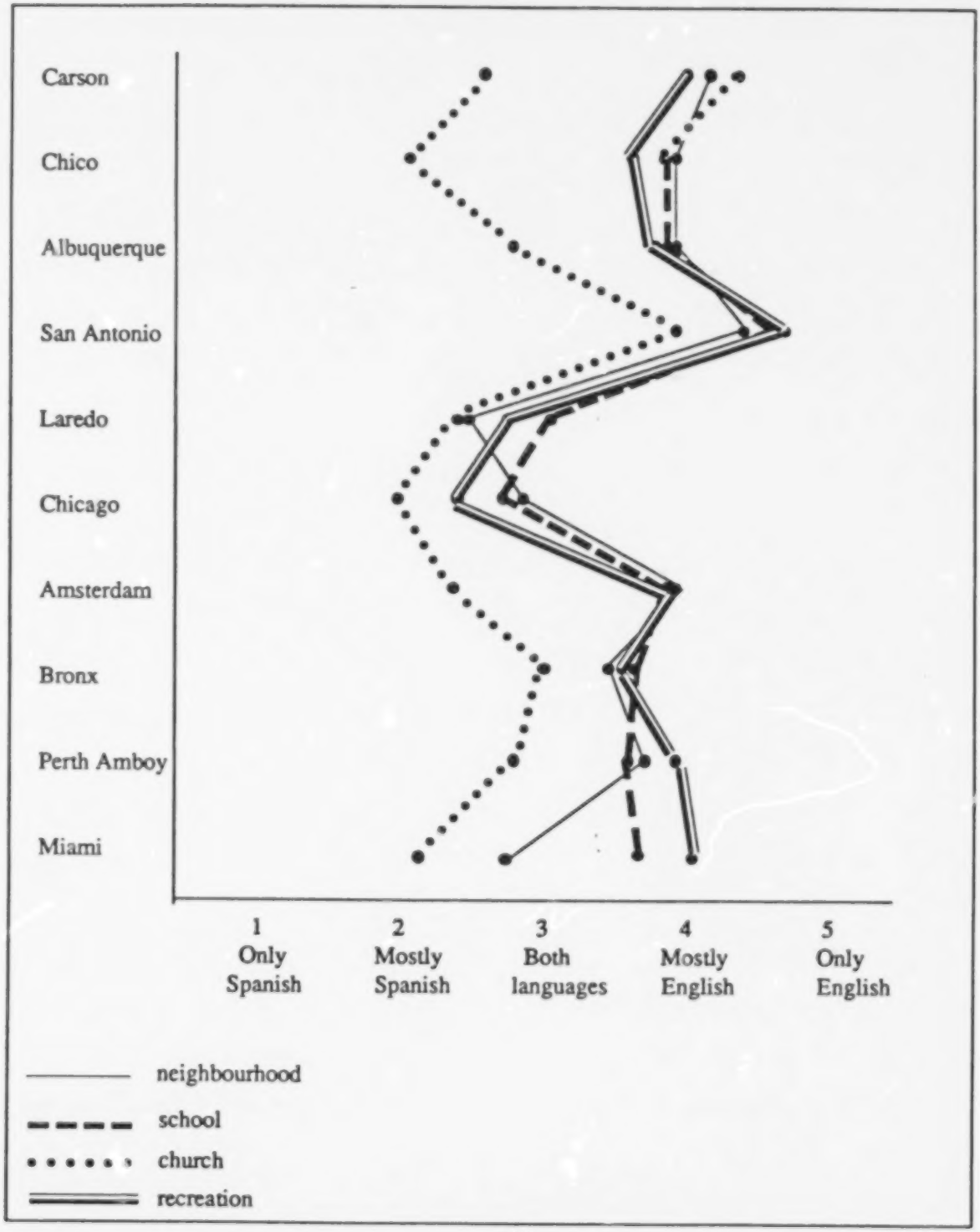


Figure 4

Relative Use of Spanish and English in different Sociolinguistic domains of ten localities



In the case of some bilingual communities, a shift in style can be associated with a shift in dialect (e.g., rural Spanish to formal Spanish) or a switch in language (e.g., English to talk to the boss at work; Spanish to interact with co-workers). Some bilingual speakers may be able to shift from casual-formal-literary in English while their range in Spanish might include different repertoire involving a range from intimate to casual due to lack of schooling experience in the textbook variety of Spanish. For example, some of speakers that participated in Fishman's Bilingualism in the Barrio (1971), were able to shift from "informal" to "formal" style in both Spanish and English. The work by Teschner (1981) among Hispanic students at the University of Texas at El Paso reveals a transfer of colloquial Spanish style to written compositions among some of the bilinguals who are less familiar with the conventions of Spanish written discourse.

The concept of register, variation in language according to occupation (e.g., airline pilots, lawyers, doctors, pimps) or situation (e.g., church, classroom, courtroom), may be less useful when consider the types of written texts.

READING AND WRITING ACROSS LANGUAGES:

Reading in a second language can include a broad range of text types. These texts may comprise literary genres such as plays, short stories, essays, poems, and novels. They may also involve informative materials (e.g., labels, warnings, recipes, handbooks, instructions, notices, rules and regulations), orientational texts (e.g., travel brochures, menus, plane and train schedules, catalogs, posters, signs, TV and radio guides, advertisements), evaluative reports (e.g., editorials, magazine articles, travel essays, reviews, biographies), visuals with texts (e.g., comic strips, cartoons, maps, pictures with captions, charts, diagrams). The reader may only need to recognize the name and numbers on a street sign (i.e., understanding explicitly stated information) or may be required to go beyond the text as in the case of having to judge the fairness in reporting found in a newspaper editorial.

At present there is no comprehensive taxomony able to classify the extensive variety of text types. Child (1987) has proposed a classification scheme based on the degree to which reader and writer share background information. These text types are organized hierarchically to correspond with ACTFL (1986) proficiency levels and include four basic categories based on the essential purpose of the text: orientation, instructive, evaluative, and projective. Lee and Musumeci (1988) have extended Child's (1987) system to include the reading skills that parallel the hierarchies of text types. Table 3 provides specific examples of the genres that correspond with each level and text type.

Table 3.

Parallel hierarchies of the Text Types and Readings Skills Defining Levels of Foreign Language Reading Proficiency

Level	Text Type	Sample Texts	Reading Skill
0/0+	Enumerative	Numbers, names, street signs, money denominations, office/shop designations, addresses.	Recognize memorize elements.
1.	Orientational	Travel and registration forms, plane and train schedules, TV/radio program guides, menus, memos, newspaper headlines, tables of contents, messages.	Skim, scan.
2.	Instructive	Ads and labels, newspaper accounts, instructions and directions, short narratives and descriptions, factual reports, formulaic requests on forms, invitations, introductory and concluding paragraphs	Decode, classify
3.	Evaluative	Editorials, analyses, apolgia, certain literary text, biography with critical interpretation	Infer, guess, hypothesize, interpret
4.	Projective	Critiques of are or theater performances, literary texts, philosophical discourse, technical papers, argumentation	Analyze, verify, extend hypotheses

(Lee and Musumeci, 1988, p.174)

Lee (1988) notes that there are many factors which can affect text difficulty, making Child's (1987) hierarchy questionable. Text difficulties can be attributed to such areas as the topic reflected in the lexical items, passage density associated with the proportion of concepts or information units in the passage, or the cognitive strategies the reader needs to employ to accomplish particular comprehension tasks.

Written language has many forms (e.g., poems, directions, pamphlets, schedules, letters, reports, essays, novels) and functions (e.g., inform, entertain, persuade, instruct, express personal feeling, warn, praise). There are two main reasons for readings: for pleasure and for obtaining information (Byrnes, 1985). When we read, we tend to approach written texts in four basic ways (Grellet, 1981, p. 4):

(1) skimming: to read a text superficially and rapidly in order to obtain the gist or main idea;

(2) scanning: to read a text quickly in order to locate a specific item of information;

(3) extensive reading: reading longer text, usually for one's own pleasure and for the purpose of global understanding and fluency development;

(4) intensive reading: reading shorter texts to extract information and to develop accuracy in comprehension at the level of detail.

Reading often involves the act of reconstructing meanings sent by a writer at a remote time and place. Much of the language of written texts is carefully "edited" (i.e., complete sentences, fewer redundances, and conventional features- paragraphing, spelling, rules and punctuation marks). Since the meaning cannot be negotiated between the participants as with speaking situations, a considerable amount of information will have to be made explicit to the reader in order to facilitate comprehension (Stubbs, 1980).

As with reading acts, writing demands can vary significantly from filling out forms, corresponding with acquaintances through personal letters, to the creation of short stories and

poems. Britton (1975) has suggested a scheme to describe writing by taking into account the role of the writer (spectator or participant in the composing process) and the three major functions of written language: expressive (personal writing similar to informal talk), transactional (information-sharing, often intended for a specific audience, placing the writer as a participant as s/he informs, directs, persuades), and poetic texts (literary works such as poems, short stories, plays in which the writer adopts the role of spectator by distancing self from the immediate context in order to tell the story or create the poem. Kaplan (1983) points that there are essentially four basic writing activities:

1. writing without composing (e.g., filling blanks in writing exercises, completing forms, writing transcriptions/word lists);
2. writing for informational purposes (e.g., notes taking, reports, summarizing outline);
3. writing for personal purposes (e.g., journals, diaries, memos, notes);
4. writing for imaginative purposes (e.g., stories, plays, poems).

Kaplan adds that while the list appears to be hierarchical, it is difficult to establish an order of acquisitions at this time since writing involves the control of four kinds of knowledge: aspects of language, writing conventions, subject or topic, and the intended audience. The text type provided in the ACTFL (1986) proficiency levels for writing, for example, relate content, language functions, and accuracy levels in relation to performance behaviors established on the basis of a hierarchy, ranging from novice to the superior level with nine specific generic descriptions. The descriptions for the three types of "novice" writers and the two levels of "advanced" students are presented here:

Novice: The novice level is characterized by an ability to produce isolated words and phrases.

Novice-low: able to form some letters in an alphabetic system. In languages whose writing systems use syllabaries or characters, writer is able to both copy and produce the basic strokes. Can produce romanization of isolated characters, where applicable.

Novice-Mid: able to copy or transcribe familiar words or phrases and reproduce some from memory. No practical communicative writing skills

Novice-High: able to write simple fixed expressions and limited memorized material and some recombination thereof. Can supply information on simple forms and documents. Can write names, numbers, dates, own nationality, and other simple autobiographical information, as well as so short phrases and simple lists, can write all the symbols in an alphabetic or syllabic system or 50-100 characters or compounds in a character writing system. Spelling and representation of symbols (letters, syllables, characters) may be partially correct.

Advanced: The advanced level is characterized by an ability to write narratives and descriptions of a factual nature of at least several paragraphs in length on familiar topics.

Advanced: able to write routine social correspondence and join sentences in simple discourse of at least several paragraph in length on familiar topics. Can write simple social correspondence, take notes, write cohesive summaries and resumes, as well as narratives and descriptions of a factual nature. Has sufficient writing vocabulary to express self simply with some circumlocution. May still make errors in punctuation, spelling, or the formation of non-alphabetic symbols. Good control of the morphology and the most frequently used syntactic structures, e.g., common word order patterns, coordination, subordination, but makes frequent errors in producing complex sentences. Uses a limited number of cohesive devices, such as pronouns, accurately. Writing may resemble literal translations from native language, but a sense of organization (rhetorical structure) is emerging. Writing is understandable to natives not used to the writing of nonnatives.

Advanced-plus: Able to write about a variety of topics with significant precision and in a detail. Can writ most social and informal business correspondence. Can describe and narrate personal experiences fully but has difficulty supporting points of view in written discourse. Can write about the concrete aspects of topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often show remarkable fluency and ease of expression, but under time constraints and pressure writing may be inaccurate. Generally strong in either grammar or vocabulary, but not in both. Weakness and unevenness in one of the foregoing or in spelling or character writing formation may result in occasional miscommunication. Some misuse of vocabulary may still be evident. Style may still be obviously foreign.

The trisectional descriptions of L2 writing proficiency according to content, function, and accuracy do not take into account the series of complicated mental operations that are required to produce written discoursed Clark and Clark(1977) note that a writer has to

consider such aspects a (1) the meaning that is to be conveyed, (2) the genre of the text (a narrative, a description, an explanation), (3) the style of the prose (e.g., casual vs. formal, neutral vs. personal), (4) the purpose of the text (e.g., to inform, to persuade , to invite) and (5) the amount of detail needed to accomplish the writer's intention.

Different types of writing genres (e.g., narratives, directions, reports, business letters,) follow specific patterns of organization and text structure. While there are universal rhetorical devices for organizing information according to such semantic structures as comparison/contrast, definition/classification, and analysis/synthesis, differences may exist between languages at the level of grammar, particularly in the manner available syntactic devices in a language are used to convey meaning (Kaplan, 1972). Writing across languages is also writing across cultures (Purves, 1988). Aside form the physical appearance of the text (e.g., indentation, margins, scripts, punctuation), the macro-discourse structure of a paragraph (e.g., topic sentence supported by examples of details) may vary from a dominant linear pattern in English to a less linear pattern in English to a less linear or non-linear organization in languages like Arabic or Chinese (Kaplan, 1966). Ostler (1987), for instance, observes that the English discourse written by Arabic speakers tends to contain elaborate parallel structures. This cultured preference appears to have some relationship to Koranic writing style.

LITERACY SKILLS AND LEARNER DIFFERENCES

Reading and writing activities in a second language have been seen from various perspectives. Reading has been viewed as a "bottom-up" process of decoding written symbols, starting form the smaller segments (individual letters, syllables, words) and working to the larger units (causes, sentences, paragraphs). Reading comprehension involves the use of various strategies which the reader uses to build progressively larger units of the language

until meaning can be extracted. Reading has also been described as a "top-down" process in which the reader brings to the task an array of information, ideas, and beliefs about the text. The reader initiates the process by making predictions about the meaning of the text as s/he employs knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, discourse, and the world. skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and background knowledge associated with the topic.

A third perspective assumes that readers use both text-based (bottom-up) and reader-based (top-down) strategies. Readers make guesses and those predictions, in turn, facilitate the decoding. As readers decode, they are able to relate the text to their own background knowledge. Thus, meaning is created through the interaction of text and reader. Stanovich (1980) has noted that efficient L2 reading may require the integration of both strategies.

Background knowledge is particularly significant for L2 readers. According to schema theory, readers can adequately comprehend a text if they have the pre-existing knowledge structures to organize knowledge of language and the world. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), not that efficient readers rely on information processing based on linguistic data from the text which is then mapped against the readers' schemata. Nunan (1984), for example, found that among high school ESL readers, background knowledge about the topic was a more important factor in reading comprehension than the syntactic complexity of the text. Similarly, Hudson (1982) demonstrated the importance of schemata in the interpretation of texts by showing that relevant background knowledge can compensate a student's level of language proficiency as a factor in reading comprehension.

It is important to note that there are many different types of strategies associated with reading a text. Van Parreren and Schouten-Van Parreren (1981) point out students may need to acquire six crucial subskills and learn when to apply each subskill depending on the task:

1. recognize the type of text (fictional, informative, persuasive);

2. recognize different types of text structure (story schema, expository prose);

3. predict and summarize the content of a text/passage;

4. make references with respect to information that is textually implicit;

5. determine the meaning of unknown from the context;

6. analyze the word morphology of unknown words.

Studies of actual reading strategies have shown that students are actively engaged in the process of constructing meaning. Hosenfeld and others (1981) observed that successful readers used a variety of strategies that involved both bottom-up and top-down processes. For example, they skipped unnecessary words and guessed contextually, relied on illustrations and titles to make inferences, kept meaning in mind, made use of their knowledge of the world, identified words according to grammatical category, looked up words, used side-glasses, evaluated guesses, and used context in preceding and succeeding sentences and paragraphs as they tried to make sense of the text. Block (1986) found that ESL college readers brought their knowledge of the reading process and approaches to the task. The use of various comprehension strategies did not seem to correspond to language-specific features. Readers who were aware of text structure and monitored their reading skills and learning course content.

Learning to write in a second language involves the control of a number of aspects simultaneously. Bell and Burnaby (1984) argue that writing is an extremely complex activity including the control of language both at the sentence level (grammatical structures, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and letter formation) and beyond the sentence (organizing and integrating information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and texts). From a language proficiency perspective, this involves various systems of knowledge and skills, including grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse competence (Canale, 1984) and the ability to use language in a context-reduced situation (Cummins, 1981).

The process of learning to write has been examined within Krashen's (1984) theory of language acquisition which makes a distinction between two independent processes: acquisition and learning. Acquisition is primarily an unconscious process that occurs during the comprehension of language input within a meaningful context that favors learning under appropriate affective conditions. Learning, on the other hand is a conscious process that usually results from formal grammar study or practice. From this perspective, writing competence is acquired through reading while fluency is writing performance is learned through extensive writing practice. The most effective writing practice is that which has a communicative orientation (to inform, persuade, describe personal experiences). Grammar teaching and error-correction should be limited to simple, learnable rules.

Learning to write has also been seen a developmental process. Emig (1981) argues that writing skills emerge in predictable stages as children learn to separate and the to consolidate their speaking and writing abilities. Children move from expressive writing, which relies heavily on their oral language competence, to transactional writing that involves a greater concern for the reader-audience. The third stage, which not all writers attain, is poetic writing in which the focus is the language itself (poem, short story, play) and the message the author-writer tries to convey.

The process by which writers arrive at their final product evolves through a series of stages as writers discover what they are trying to say. Zamel (1983) found that skilled ESL writers approached writing as a creative, generative process, not always based on a clear, linear direction. Writing involved integrating new ideas, revising those already recorded, and reconstructing the basic framework. Writing also required the ability to assess the clarity of thought and logic and the capacity to distance oneself from the text, in order to take into account the reader's point of view. Unskilled writers, on the other hand, were less concerned with the creation of meaning and tended to their writing as a series of linguistic elements- words,

sentences, and paragraphs-that had to be organized in a linear fashion. Lapp (1984) compared the writing behaviors of skilled and unskilled ESL writers and noted significant differences during the prewriting and writing phases as well as the use of revising strategies skilled writers. Skilled writers spent time thinking about the writing task, organized their ideas and information, reviewed to at the sentence or paragraph level while attending to meaning, and made frequent revisions to clarify meaning or change the direction/focus of the text. Unskilled writers spent little time in planning, were concerned primarily with the word choice and sentence formation, and used revisions for changes at the surface level such as checking for correct grammar, spelling, and punctuation.

Meaningful writing according to Nystrand (1982: 64-65), requires attending to the following constraints that can affect the reader's reconstruction of meaning:

1. graphic constraints - matters of orthography, legibility, punctuation, spacing, and layout;

2. syntactic constraints - sentence structure, homonym confusion, omission of punctuation marks, and a few cases violations of prescribed usage;

3. semantic constraints - assumptions about what the reader brings to the text and the presentation of "new information" based on the reader's "given information";

4. textured constraints - the use of cohesive devices (reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction) that help to clarify or maintain text continuity;

5. contextual constraints - factors such as format, genre, mode, type and title that are relevant to the text's situation.

Reading and writing are distinct but closely related processes, Trueba (1982: 24) points out that literacy skills "develop gradually through a process of acquisition and accumulation of cognitive, cultural, sociolinguistic and communicative skills," and , more important, literacy acquisition presupposes oral language proficiency. Schumann (1978)

explains the acquisition of oral language proficiency in L2 from an acculturation perspective. Successful L2 learners display positive language attitudes and motivational tendencies thus enables them to attain higher levels of proficiency than those who because of social and psychological factors may be less willing to embrace the L2 target culture.

Spolsky (1985) has suggested that the social context can greatly influence L2 acquisition process with respect to the learner's attitude toward the L2 community and the learning situation itself. The role of the social context may be particularly salient when considering the purposes of second language literacy, particularly among ethnolinguistic minority groups. Wallace (1986: 6) states that:

There will be kinds of reading and writing undertaken in order to maintain feeling of identity with one's own community, ethnic group and family, where readers are taking on what we might call 'private' roles. Then there are more 'public' roles to do with being a member of the wider society, for example as motorist, consumer or taxpayer. Literacy from this perspective can involve such language needs as basic survival requirements (product labels, highway road signs), academic skills (textbooks, manuals, essays, multiple-rights and duties), maintaining personal relationships (letters, telegrams), personal uses (comic, magazines, newspapers, novels).

Another important consideration is the role that motivation plays in the acquisition process. A learner may study a second language initially for instrumental purposes (an interest in occupational uses of the language) and later manifest and integrative motive (a desire to associate with member of target community). Brown (1981) identifies three types of motivation: (1) global motivation, associated with the general orientation to the goal of learning; (2) situational motivation, which can vary according to the context where the learning takes place-classroom or naturalistic setting; (3) task motivation, which corresponds to the motivational drive for performing different learning tasks. Ely (1986)

suggests that some learners may have a desire to learn a second language that is not related with either instrumental or integrative motives. Some may learn a language as a means of promoting social respect, developing a better understanding of the world, or gaining a well-rounded education.

The concept of language attitudes has been studied closely in relation with motivation. Attitudes can be used to refer to the set of beliefs that a learner holds of the community and people who speak the target language. The term can also be used to the language itself ("Learning French is interesting/not interesting at all.") or the learning task ("I find studying English is dull/exciting; hard/easy.")

The relationship between attitudes and motivation is not always clear. Some investigators use the term "attitudes" to refer to motivational tendencies. Others use the concept of motivation for describing course related attitudes and opinions about specific learning tasks. Given the abstractness of the two concepts and types of relationships that can exist between the two constructs, it is difficult to establish precisely how attitudes and motivation affect second language learning. There can be no doubt, however, that both motivation and attitudes are powerful factors which help to determine the level of proficiency attained by different learners (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1980). Savignon (1976) believes that attitude is the single most important variable in second language learning. It is not clear at this point if motivation may lie in the act of communication itself instead of any general motivation orientation as reflected by an instrumental/integrative difference. According to her, it may be possible to foster a more favorable language attitude and motivational orientation by the selection of appropriate learning tasks based on the learner's motives, interests, and needs. Richards (1990) argues that needs-analysis procedures should be used in curriculum development in second language teaching.

LITERACY PLANNING ISSUES

Sociolinguistic concepts like language varieties, sociolinguistic domains, language choice, and style are useful categories to describe some aspects of multilingualism in the United States. Language attitudes also influence language use among bilinguals and affect reactions to different language varieties. Ramirez, Milk, and Sapiens (1985), for example, found that among adolescent Hispanic pupils in Texas and California, attitudes towards four varieties of Spanish (Standard Mexican Spanish, local Spanish, ungrammatical Spanish, and Spanish/English code switching) were hierarchical in nature, ranging from standard Spanish (highest variety) to code switching (lowest variety). these ratings were made for each variety with respect to acceptability in the classroom, degree of correctness, and their speaker's academic potential. Judgments about the four varieties were influenced by language use, location, listener's place of birth and sex. Teachers in Texas reacted in a similar way to the four varieties on the basis of a standard language continuum: Standard Spanish was rated higher than the two non-standard varieties (local and ungrammatical) and code switching. The two non-standard varieties were evaluated more favorably than code switching, a common feature of bilingual communication (Ramirez and Milk, 1986). With respect to text types, different genres organize information in unique ways for such purposes as enumerating, orienting, instructing and evaluating. Some text types, whether oral or written, may be associated with one language, while other genres might be performed in the second language or both. Thus, following Ferguson's (1959) depiction of "high" and "low" varieties in a diglossic language situation, one could detect the following distribution in a specific Hispanic community;

An understanding of texts types in relation to language distribution patterns would be another essential aspect of the fact finding phase (I) of literacy planning.

Written Text Types	English	Spanish	Both
Church bulletin			+
Personal letters		+	
Newspapers	+		
Magazines			+
Business Correspondence	+		
TV guides	+		
Visual with texts (novels)		+	
Warnings			+
Labels	+		

Questions regarding the type of literacy need to be clarified. Educators have recognized three broad categories of literacy: functional, cultural, and critical (Williams and Capizzi Snipper, 1990). Functional literacy is usually related to basic writing (encoding) and reading (decoding) simple texts which would correspond to enumerative, orientational, and instructive genres (Level 2 on ACTFL's Proficiency Guidelines). Cultural literacy encompasses "cultural schemata" necessary for fully comprehending texts in the social sense (Level 3 on ACTFL's framework). Critical literacy involves an understanding of the ideology of written texts (Level 4 on ACTFL's framework). Deciding what texts in what languages are to be produced or comprehended at which literacy levels would correspond to the selection stage (II) of literacy

planning. The subsequent stage (III) would involve the development of material, determining a curricular approach (e.g., language experience, whole language, Freire's problem-posing method), and deciding on the appropriate instructional techniques suitable for adult learners. Stage IV, the implementation phase, would entail interaction with the speech community through the dissemination of information regarding the program's goals and benefits to the participants. This will require speaking to the adults in their own language/dialect. Preview sessions to acquaint learners with the content and teaching approaches may prove to be useful as a part of the orientation, regarding the potential users of literacy. Rubin (1983) reminds us that if language policies are to serve both individual and national needs, patterns of communication will need to change to assure that different groups within a society, varying in their linguistic repertoires due to language background or social class, have equal access to the system and opportunities to participate in it. This would require changes in the attitudes toward different languages and their use in society.

Biliteracy offers some adult learners the possibility of fully living their bicultural lives and participating in literacy events associated with each language. At the same time, higher literacy levels (e.g., ACTFL's III or IV) may not be possible to the same degree in both languages given the distribution of the two languages in society and the speakers' attitudes towards each variety.

VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE SITUATIONS

The language situation of the United States can be characterized in terms of both linguistic and cultural diversity. Countries like Singapore and Malaysia, for example, are also multicultural, multireligious and multilingual societies. Malaysia seems to have chosen the solution of nationalism or depluralization by following a cultural assimilation policy by adopting Malay (Bahasa Malaysia) as the official language of the country. By contrast, Singapore

has promoted multiculturalism and pluralism by declaring the four main languages (English, Malay, Madarin and Tamil) as official languages thus encouraging the cultural maintenance of traditional values and emphasizing the utilitarian function of English as the basis for a supra - ethnic national identity.

Garcia (1982) notes that countries can implement different language programs designed with various national goals in mind. These can include educational programs designed to promote

1. Vernaculization, the restoration of an indigenous language and establish it as a national standard (e.g., Tagalog in the Philippines);
2. Internationalization, the development of proficient bilinguals who can function effectively in the international community (e.g., English for Greek and Dutch students);
3. Assimilation, the incorporation of immigrant groups or ethnolinguistic minority groups (e.g., English programs for immigrants groups to Australia or Hebrew for immigrants to Israel);
4. Pluralization, bilingual programs that enable different language and cultural groups to co-exist within a nation (e.g., Basque and Cutalan language programs in Spain; Navajo language programs in the American Southwest).

In the United States biliteracy language programs designed for adults are highly diverse in focus and learner characteristics. The adult learners may be native - born or immigrants - refugees, newly naturalized citizens, and illegal residents. They may differ widely with respect to personal background, educational experiences in the first language, professional training, and interest in becoming literate in a second language. Some literacy programs may focus exclusively on the development of English language oral and written skills while other may denote considerable attention to the maintenance of literacy traditions in the students' native language. Funding sources for literacy programs may come from the federal government, state departments of education, private foundations or a combination of federal and state money. The

programs can be found in such places as community centers, libraries, prisons, churches, synagogues, and housing projects. While many of the programs tend to be learner-centered by focussing on the literacy needs of the students, shifts in funding sources can also lead to changes in program goals in an effort to meet the ever-changing stipulations of the literacy patrons. (Wrigley, 1991).

The development of L2 literacy skills among adults appears to be a complex phenomenon. Recent findings indicate that reading ability transfer more easily from L1 to L2 than does writing proficiency. The relationship between reading and writing abilities can vary according to language group (e.g., Japanese vs. Chinese) and that literacy development in L2 can be influenced by such factors as levels of L2 proficiency, educational experiences in L1 and l2, and cultural literacy practices (Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, and Kuehn, 1990).

Literacy planning as a sociolinguistic activity is not necessarily restricted to state or federal governmental efforts. Individual or groups of individuals can also engage in community literacy efforts designed to serve the needs of the ethnolinguistic groups. Efforts at biliteracy planning can be examined from a comparative perspective which takes in account both socio-political and linguistic considerations. Ornstein-Galicia (1979) offers a matrix of selected factors or variables which can be used as a heuristic device for predicting the favorability of bilingual schooling for a particular ethnolinguistc group. The socio-political dimension includes eight factors : (1) demographic strength of the group, (2) territorality, specific geographic area(s), residency "claimed" by the group, (3) cultural-religious distance which separates the ethnic group from the mainstream, (4) ethnicity/ethnos which tends to promote group solidarity, (5) socio-economic status which may promote the need to become bilingual to survive and/or conduct business, (6) mobilization or level of politicization among members of the group, (7) and (8) favorable micro and macro level situation with regard to the local/regional circumstances in relation to the national climate which may or may not be

congruent with the local needs or aspirations. The linguistic dimension encompasses six factors: (1) vitality of the minority language, (2) historicity or formal, written tradition of the native language, (3) standardization or the degree the language has been codified with its usage norms, (4) linguistic distance from the dominant, national language with respect to alphabet, grammatical structure, and vocabulary, (5) language attitudes with regard to the group's perceptions of its own language and that of the others as well as language loyalty in terms of its continued use and reasons for undertaking additional language study, and (6) national language situation in terms of linguistic diversity, tolerance, and implicit/explicit language policies. Socio-political factors can override linguistic considerations, but both linguistic issues and socio-political aspects should be examined jointly to determine a favorable conjuncture for bilingual education or as may be the case in planning adult biliteracy programs.

Ethnographic approaches to literacy study provide valuable insights about the ways individuals think about their literacy experiences within a particular community. Cisneros and Leone's (1990) note that among a group of Mexican Americans from San Antonio, Texas it was to learn from the individuals themselves (1) their motivation for literacy learning, (2) their strategies for literacy learning, (3) the learners' literacy through their work experience, and (4) the learners' literacy through their schooling experiences. They point out that language planning needs to consider family literacy not simply individual literacy. Business should play a role in literacy classes by developing their literacy skills and encouraging education to incorporate specific work-related literacy events in the curriculum. Literacy learners can also pose literacy problems and offer solutions for these problems both in the work setting and other domains such as health, housing, education, legal matters, and cultural concerns.

CONCLUSION

Biliteracy education programs designed for adults involve a broad range of sociolinguistic questions that can be approached from a language planning perspective. As a problem solving activity, language planning is in fact the realization of a language policy which a government adopts with respect to such issues as language diversity, minority language treatment, language standardization, or the national language question. Language planning stresses the social nature of language, its functions in society, and the attitudes or group needs with respect to the different languages or speech varieties (Cooper, 1984). In this respect, biliteracy programs can be developed following a series of stages and activities initially conceived for developing countries (Rubin, 1973):

1. Fact Finding : Survey and review of sociolinguistic concerns including the language variety/varieties spoken by the member of the speech community, patterns of language use in the local communicty, attitudes about the first/second languages and range of literacy needs.

2. Selection Stage : Identify literacy goals including the role of the native language literacy skills in relation to the second language (English), specify literacy skills in terms of both individual and society needs, and suggest strategies for reaching the various goals.

3. Development Phase : Prepare materials needed for biliteracy instruction, perhaps obtain materials used in other projects, and consider the incorporation of "authentic" texts as used in different social situations - workplace, health care, social services, and cultural activities. Curriculum planning efforts should take into account the research findings on such aspects as the development of reading and writing skills among bilinguals, the role of learner differences, differences between oral and written language, and the cognitive processes associated with the various text types.

4. Implementation Phase: provide information to the members of the speech community, solicit support from different agencies/groups to disseminate information to the broader community about the literacy goals offer an instructional program that centers on the needs of the adult learner.

5. Evaluation Phase: examine the degree to which the different literacy goals/objectives have been met, revise, if necessary, making modifications in objectives, teaching methods, and learner/workplace needs.

Biliteracy instruction involves making decisions about what role different languages and dialects should play in society. In many countries these questions do not arise because the choices are not open to revision. In the United States effective literacy practices for some members involve the use of more than two languages, and at times the native language as spoken by some members of a speech community will not be the standard, textbook variety. Standardizing the spoken variety may not always be feasible or desirable since many of the speakers themselves may prefer to become literate in the school (high) variety instead of the home (low) variety with respect to sociolinguistic criteria. To be sure, native language literacy skills are seen as a plus in the acquisition of second langauge literacy skills (e.g., Cummins, 1981; McLaughlin, 1987).

Moreover, learner variables such as affective/attitude considerations and strategies for literacy acquisition can play a significant role among the members of a speech community. Beyond this one can conceive of literacy as culture practice (Reder, 1990). The development of biliteracy skills within a social context would imply an examination of literacy as the use of written materials in terms of a set of cultural activities. The globalization of the world economy and increase migration patterns to the United States offer us a unique opportunity to re-evaluate our language policies torward biliteracy goals for a different America in the new world order.

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